DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 428 757 IR 019 506

AUTHOR Ikequlu, Patricia R.

TITLE Effects of Screen Designs in CBI Environments.

PUB DATE 1998-10-31

NOTE 14p.

PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Reports - Descriptive (141)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS *Computer Assisted Instruction; Computer Graphics; *Computer

Interfaces; Computer Software Development; Computer System

Design; *Courseware; *Design Preferences; Educational Technology; Instructional Design; *Instructional Effectiveness; Man Machine Systems; *Screen Design

(Computers); Screens (Displays)

Learning Environments; Usability IDENTIFIERS

ABSTRACT

This article focuses on the effectiveness of computer-based instruction (CBI) screen designs, including their benefits and limitations, as well as human constraints in designing effective CBI. The paper begins with an overview of what comprises an effective CBI screen design, including characteristics of human factors, how information must be visually presented to stimulate and enhance human comprehension, how physical actions must flow to minimize the potential for fatigue and injury, and consideration of the capabilities and limitations of the hardware and software at the human computer interface. Benefits of a well-designed CBI screen are summarized, including effects on general academic performance and cognitive outcomes, as well as the advantages of graphic presentation of information. The following problems that may impact the usability and effectiveness of a CBI medium are discussed: constraints in design guidelines; human constraints; hardware constraints; application considerations; and design complexity and inconsistent terminology/techniques. It is concluded that different CBI screen design interfaces have different strengths and weaknesses. Some concepts and tasks are very difficult to convey symbolically and are not suited for a CBI screen design; other concepts and tasks may be well suited. Which tasks are best suited for which styles and systems still needs much study. (Contains 29 references.) (AEF)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made

from the original document.



Running Head: Screen Design and CBI

Effects of Screen Designs in CBI Environments

Patricia R. Ikegulu, Programmer/Analyst

Department of Manufacturing and Industrial Engineering Technology

P. O. Box 366 College of Science and Technology Grambling State University Grambling, LA 71245-0366

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION Office of Educational Research and Improvement EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION

CENTER (ERIC)

This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

Minor changes have been made to

improve reproduction quality.

Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

October 31, 1998

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

P. R. Ikegulu

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Effects of Screen Designs in CBI Environments

Background and Introduction

As the twentieth century draws to a close and the computer industry matures, awareness that the human computer interface is a key element in computer-based instruction (CBI) designs is finally occurring. This awakening has been caused by a variety of factors predicated upon the effects of screen design in CBI environments. The combined voices of frustrated users, fed up with complicated procedures and incomprehensive screens, have finally become overwhelming. Examples of "good" screen designs, when and if they did occur, have been presented as vivid proof that good design is possible (Brown, 1988; Mathews & Mertins, 1987, 1988). Technology, as it leaps forward into the twenty-first century, has eliminated many of the barriers to good screen design and unleashed a variety of new graphic displays and interaction techniques (Galitz, 1992; Kearsley, 1988; Shneidermann, 1982; Shneidermann & Margona, 1987).

The focus of this article is on the effectiveness of CBI screen designs, including their benefits and limitations as well as human constraints in designing effective computer-based instruction. Graphics have revolutionized screen design and the user interface. A graphical screen bears scant resemblance to its text-based colleagues. Whereas a traditional screen maintains a one-dimensional, text-oriented, form-like quality, graphic screens can assume a three-dimensional look (Brown, 1988; Kearsley, 1988). Information can "float" in windows (small rectangular boxes seeming to rise above the background plane (Galitz, 1992). Windows can also float above other windows. Information can appear and disappear, as needed, and in some cases texts can be



replaced by symbols representing objects or actions. These symbols are commonly referred to as "icons" (Engel & Granda, 1975; Brown, 1988; Galitz, 1992). Graphics and human characteristics are some of the effective features of screen design.

What Comprises an Effective CBI Screen Design?

To be truly effective, a good CBI screen design requires many things. Included are the characteristics of human factors (that is, how we see, understand, and think). It also includes how information must be visually presented to stimulate and enhance human comprehension, and how physical actions must flow to minimize the potential for fatigue and injury (Blaschke, 1986; Mathews &Mertins, 1987, 1988). Good CBI designs must also consider the capabilities and limitations of the hardware and software at the human computer interface (Tullis, 1981, 1985).

Screen design specifications must be such that they permit interaction between the user and the computer. Walker (1989) pointed out that most of the benefits of one interaction style over another are anecdotal. This has made the debate between advocates of graphical and other styles of interaction more religious than scientific. Whiteside, Jones, Levy, and Wixon (1985) compared the usability characteristics of seven systems, including direct-manipulation, menu, and command language styles of interaction. They found that user performance was independent of type of system. There were large differences in learnability and usability among all treatment combinations. How well the system was designed was the best indicator, not the interaction style. Shneidermann (1982) compared learning and performance for direct-manipulation and command-based word processing systems. While no differences existed after the first experimental session,



the direct-manipulation system user's performance became increasingly superior as the study progressed (and task complexity increased). It appeared that the direct-manipulation system facilitated the learning process as task complexity increased. Brems and Whitten (1987) evaluated a family of seven commands for user preferences. The alternative design styles were commands described by icons only, icons with textual captions, and textual captions only. While the meanings of the icons were learned, textual captions were preferred to uncaptioned icons.

Learning, they concluded, was not a good indicator of preference. The same results were recorded by McGrath (1992) in her comparison of hypertext-based CAI and non-CAI learners.

Benefits of a CBI Screen Design

At best, a poorly designed CBI screen can exact a toll in human productivity and learning potentials. At its worst, a poorly designed CBI graphics can create an impression that understanding it will require more time than one can afford to commit, or that it is too complex to understand at all. Those who have the luxury of doing so (e.g., professionals or experts) may refuse to use it, and the purpose for which it was designed will never be met (Liao, 1992; Singer, 1992).

The benefits of a well-designed CBI screen have been under experimental scrutiny. There are very few studies on the effectiveness of CBI designs. However, there are some positive findings in the few that have been published. Becker (1987), Blaschke (1986), Kulik and Kulik (1987), McGrath (1992), and Singer (1992) found positive correlations between computer access and design effect with general academic performance. Lioa's (1992) meta-analytic study indicated that cognitive outcomes of using CAI extended beyond the content of the specific software being



used and the subject being taught. Improvements in these cognitive outcomes are possible through improved system design, and access to better hardware and software to run the system.

Dunsmore (1982) attempted to improve screen clarity and readability by making screens less crowded. Separate items, which have been combined on the same display line to conserve space, were placed on separate lines instead. The result: Screen users were about 20 percent more productive with the less-crowded version. Keister and Gallaway (1983) reformatted a series of screens following the guidelines as outlined in Engel and Granda (1975). There result indicated that users of the modified screens completed their tasks in 25 percent less time and with about 20 percent fewer errors than those who used the original screens. Tullis (1981) reported how reformatting inquiry screens using good design specifications reduced decision-making time by about 40 percent, resulting in a saving of 80 percent person-years in the affected system. In a second study that compared 500 screens (Tullis, 1983), it was found that the time to extract information from displays of airline or loading information was 128 percent faster for the best format than for the worst. Other studies (e.g., Brown, 1988; Mann & Shnetzler, 1986; Pulat & Nwankwo, 1987) have also shown that proper formatting of information on screens does have a significant positive effect on performance.

Screen navigation, commands, and file management can be executed through menu bars and pull-downs. Menus may "pop-up." In the screen body, selection fields (such as radio buttons, check and list boxes, and palletes) coexist with the reliable old entry field. More sophisticated entry fields with attached or drop-down menus of alternatives are also available. Screen objects and actions may be selected through use of pointing mechanisms such as the mouse or joystick



instead of the traditional keyboard. Shneidermann and Margona (1987) compared some simple file manipulation using a graphical system (Macintosh) and a command language system (DOS). The graphical system was found best in learnability, performance time, and subjective ratings.

Increased computer power and the vast improvement in the display enable the user's actions to be reacted to quickly, dynamically, and meaningfully. This new interface is often characterized as representing one's "desktop" with scattered notes, papers, and objects such as files, trays, and trash cans arrayed around the screen (Kearsley, 1988; Liao, 1992).

In CBI environments, graphic presentation of information utilizes a person's information processing capabilities much more effectively than other presentation methods. Properly used, a graphic presentation minimizes the necessity for perceptual and mental recoding and reduces short-term memory loads. Graphic presentation also permits faster information transfer between the computer and the user by permitting more visual comparisons of amounts, trends, or relations; more compact representation of information; and simplification of structural perception (Brown, 1988; Galitz, 1992). Graphics can also add appeal or charm to the screen interface and permit greater customization to create a unique style in CBI environments that are user friendly (Galitz, 1992; Shneidermann, 1977, 1982, 1982a).

Limitations of a CBI Screen Design

Screen design may also be contributing to the visual fatigue reported by some users.

Dainoff, Happ, and Crane (1986) estimated that as many as 45 percent of all users may be victims of CRT-induced visual fatigue. In a study that required extended CRT viewing, Mathews and Mertins (1987, 1988) indicated that about 60 percent of the study participants reported eye-



focusing problem and 40 percent reported pain in the eye area.

The benefits of a mediated graphical system may be tempered by several possible problems. One or all may impact the usability and effectiveness of a particular CBI medium. These include the following:

Constraints in Design Guidelines

The graphical interface is burdened today by the lack of experientially derived design guidelines. More designer interest has existed in solving technical rather than usability issues, so few studies that might aid decision-making designs exist. It is also difficult to develop studies evaluating design alternatives because of increased CBI screen design complexities. Too many variables that must be controlled make meaningful causal inference difficult to substantiate. Consequently, there is little understanding of how most design aspects relate to productivity, knowledge gains and transfer, and satisfaction.

Human Constraints

Human limitations exist in terms of one's capability of dealing with the increased complexity of the graphical interface. The variety of visual displays and motor skills required are likely to challenge all but the sophisticated users. Correctly double-clicking a mouse, for example, is difficult for some novice users (Galitz, 1992; Shneidermann & Margona, 1987).

Hardware Constraints

Good screen designs also require hardware of adequate power, processing speed, screen resolution, and graphic capability. Any insufficiencies in these areas will prevent a mediated screen design's full potentials from being realized.



Application Considerations

Graphics may not be the best alternative in all situations. Studies have found textual presentation of information (Brown, 1988; Shneidermann, 1977, 1982a; Shneidermann & Margona, 1987; Stern, 1984) or tabular display of information (Tufte, 1983) superior to graphics. So, it is the content of the graphic that is critical to the usefulness of the CBI medium. The wrong or a cluttered presentation may actually lead to greater confusion and frustration, not less.

Design Complexity and Inconsistent Terminology/Techniques

The elements and techniques available to CBI screen designers far outnumber those that have been at the disposal of the text-based screen designer. This "more' may not necessarily be better, unless it is thoughtfully, simply, and consistently applied to the CBI environment. Since graphics are most often applied with color, the advantages and problems of color must be considered. In addition, many techniques and terminologies exist between various graphical system providers. These inconsistencies occur because of both copyright and legal implications as well as product differentiation considerations. The result, however, is that learning for both designers and users is much more difficult than it should be (Brems & Whitten, 1987).

Conclusion

A graphical system possesses a set of defining concepts. Included are sophisticated visual presentation, pick and click interaction, a restricted set of interface options, object-orientation, visualization, extensive utilization of a person's recognition memory, and concurrent performance



of functions. The conclusions based on research studies indicated that different CBI screen design interfaces have different strengths and weaknesses. Some concepts and tasks are very difficult to convey symbolically and do not seem to be suited for a CBI screen design. Other concepts and tasks, however, may be well suited. Which tasks are best suited for which styles and systems still needs much study.



Reference

Becker, H. J. (1987). The impact of computer use on children's learning: What research has shown and what it has not. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, DC. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 287 458).

Blaschke, C, (1986). In D. Hynson (Ed.), <u>CAI effectiveness and advancing technologies:</u>

<u>An update.</u> Fairfax, VA: International Communications Industries Association.

Brems, D. J. & Whitten, W. B. (1987). Learning and preference icon-based interface.

Proceedings of the Human Factors Society's 31st. Annual Meeting, 87, 125-129.

Brown, C. M. (1988). <u>Human-computer interface design guidelines</u>. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Company.

Dainoff, M. J., Happ, A., & Crane, P. (1986). Visual fatigue and occupational stress in VDU operators. <u>Human Factors</u>, 23, 421-438.

Dunsmore, H. E. (1982). Using formal Grammars to predict the most useful characteristics of interactive systems. Office Automation Digest. 53-56.

Engel, S. E. & Granda, R. E. (1975). <u>Guidelines for man display interfaces.</u> IBM Technical Report No. TR 00-2720.

Galitz, W. O. (1992). <u>User-interface screen design.</u> Wellesley, MA: QED Publishing Group.



Gannon, J. F. (1986). <u>The increasing effects of computers on education</u>. Center for Research on Teacher Education, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 286 498).

Kearsley, G. (1988). On-line help: Design and implementation. Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley.

Keister, R. S. & Gallaway, G. R. (1983). Making software user friendly: An assessment of data-entry performance. Proceedings of the Human Factors Society's 27th. Annual Meeting, Santa Monica, CA, pp. 1031-1034.

Kulik, J. E. & Kulik, C. C. (1987). Computer-based instruction: What 200 evaluations say. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Association for Educational and Communications Technology, Atlanta, GA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 285 521).

Liao, Y. K. (1992). Effects of CAI on cognitive outcomes: A meta-analysis. <u>Journal of Research on Computing in Education</u>, 24, 189-202.

McGrath, D. (1992). Hypertext, CAI, paper, or program control: Do learners benefit from choices? Journal of Research on Computing in Education, 24, 513-532.

Mann, T. L. & Shnetzler, L. A. (1986). Evaluation of formats for aircraft control/display units. Applied Ergonomics, 17, 265-270.

Mathews, M. L. & Mertins, K. (1987). The influence of color on visual search and subjective discomfort using CRT displays. <u>Proceedings of the Human Factors Society's 31st.</u>

<u>Annual Meeting, Santa Monica, CA</u>, pp. 1271-1275.



Mathews, M. L. & Mertins, K. (1988). Working with color CRTs: Pink eye, yellow fever, and feeling blue. In E. D. Megaw, (Ed.), <u>Proceedings of the Ergonomics Society's 1988 Annual Conference</u>, (pp. 228-233). London: Taylor & Francis Publishers.

Pulat, B. M. & Nwankwo, H. H. (1987). Formatting alphanumeric CRT display.

International Journal of Man-Machine Studies, 26, 567-580.

Shneidermann, B. (1977). Experimental investigations of the utility of detailed flowcharts in programming. Communications of the ACM, 20, 373-381.

Shneidermann, B. (1982a). Control flow and data structure documentation: Two experiments. Communications of the ACM, 25(1), 55-63.

Shneidermann, B. (1982). The future of interactive systems and the emergence of direct manipulation. Behavior and Information Technology, I, 237-256.

Shneidermann, B. & Margona, S. (1987). A study of file manipulation by novices using commands vs. direct manipulation. <u>Proceedings of the 26th. Annual Technical Symposium of the Washington DC Chapter of the ACM.</u> Gaithersburg, MD: Natural Bureau of Standards.

Singer, B. R. (1992). CAI and At-risk minority urban high school students. <u>Journal of Research on Computing in Education</u>, 24, 189-202.

Stern, K. R. (1984). An evaluation of written, graphics, and voice messages in proceduaralized instructions. <u>Proceedings of the Human Factors Society's 28th. Annual Meeting.</u>
Santa Monica, CA, pp. 314-318.

Tufte, E. R. (1983). The visual display of quantitative information. Cheshire, CT: Graphics Press.



Tullis, T. S. (1981). An evaluation of graphics and color information displays. <u>Human Factors</u>, 23, 541-550.

Tullis, T. S. (1985). Designing a menu-based interface to an operating system.

Proceedings of the CHI'85 Human Factors in Computing Systems, pp. 79-84.

Walker, M. A. (1989). Natural language in a desktop environment. In G. Salvendy and M. J. Smith (Eds.), <u>Designing and Using Human Computer Interfaces and Knowledge Systems</u>, (pp. 322-325). Amsterdam: Elsevier Science Publishers.

Whiteside, J., Jones, S., Levy, P. S., & Wixon, D. (1985). User performance with commands, menu, and iconic interfaces. <u>Proceedings of the CHI'85 Human Factors in Computing Systems</u>, pp. 185-191.





U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)



REPRODUCTION RELEASE

(Specific Document)

I. DOCUMENT IDENTIFICATION:

Title: EFFECTS OF SCREEN DESIGNS IN CBI ENVIRONMENTS	
Author(s): Patricia R. IKEGULU (PE)	
Corporate Source: Grambling State University (Industrial & Manufacturing)	Publication Date: 1998

II. REPRODUCTION RELEASE:

In order to disseminate as widely as possible timely and significant materials of interest to the educational community, documents announced in the monthly abstract journal of the ERIC system, *Resources in Education* (RIE), are usually made available to users in microfiche, reproduced paper copy, and electronic/optical media, and sold through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS) or other ERIC vendors. Credit is given to the source of each document, and, if reproduction release is granted, one of the following notices is affixed to the document.

If permission is granted to reproduce the identified document, please CHECK ONE of the following options and sign the release below.



Sample sticker to be affixed to document

Sample sticker to be affixed to document

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS

MATERIAL IN OTHER THAN PAPER

COPY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

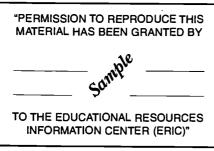
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)"

Level 2



Check here

Permitting microfiche (4" x 6" film), paper copy, electronic, and optical media reproduction.



Level 1

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES

or here

Permitting reproduction in other than paper copy.

•

Sign Here, Please

Documents will be processed as indicated provided reproduction quality permits. If permission to reproduce is granted, but neither box is checked, documents will be processed at Level 1.

"I hereby grant to the Educational Resources Information Center (indicated above. Reproduction from the ERIC microfiche or electro system contractors requires permission from the copyright holder. service agencies to satisfy information needs of educators in resp	onic/optical media by persons other than ERIC employees and its Exception is made for non-profit reproduction by libraries and other
Signature: Patricia L. Dkegulu	Position: Programmer/Analyst
Printed Name: Patricia R. Ikegulu	Organization: Department of Industrial and Manufacturing Engineering Technology
Address: P. O. Box 366	Telephone Number: (318) 274-2273
Grambling, LA 71245-0366	Date: October 31, 1998

III. DOCUMENT AVAILABILITY INFORMATION (FROM NON-ERIC SOURCE):

If permission to reproduce is not granted to ERIC, or, if you wish ERIC to cite the availability of the document from another source, please provide the following information reguarding the availability of the document. (ERIC will not announce a document unless it is publicly available, and a dependable source can be specified. Contributors should also be aware that ERIC selection criteria are significantly more stringent for documents that cannot be made available through EDRS.)

Publisher/Distributor:	
Address:	
Price Per Copy:	Quantity Price:
REFERRAL OF ERIC TO COPYRIGHT/R	REPRODUCTION RIGHTS HOLDER:
If the right to grant reproduction release is held by someor name and address:	ne other than the addressee, please provide the appropriate
ame and address of current copyright/reproduction rights holder:	
ame:	
ddress:	
·	
WHERE TO SEND THIS FORM:	
end this form to the following ERIC Clearinghouse:	
•	
	

If you are making an unsolicited contribution to ERIC, you may return this form (and the document being contributed) to:

ERIC Facility 1301 Piccard Drive, Suite 300 Rockville, Maryland 20850-4305 Telephone: (301) 258-5500

